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JPRS L/10322

12 February 1982

USSR Report

POLITICAL AND SOCIOLOGICAL AFFAIRS

(FOUO 4/82)



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INTERNATIONAL

BOOK ATTACKS U.S. ANTI-SOVIET COURSE

Moscow ANTISOVIETISM V GLOBAL'NOY STRATEGII IMPERIALIZMA SShA in Russian 1981
(signed to press 3 Jul 81) pp 1-2, 284-286

[Table of contents and brief description of book by N. V. Zagladin]

[Excerpts' Title Page:

Title: ANTISOVIETISM V GLOBAL'NOY STRATEGII IMPERIALIZMA SShA
(Anti-Sovietism in the Global Strategy of U.S. Imperialism)
Publisher: Mysl'
Place and year of publication: Moscow, 1981

Signed to Press Date: 3 July 1981

Number of Copies Published: 50,000

Number of Pages: 286

Brief Description:

On the basis of factual material, this book shows the influence of anti-Sovietism in forming U.S. foreign policy; it sheds light on its use by American ruling circles in attempts to stop the world revolutionary process and in the struggle for U.S. "world leadership." The monograph discloses the basic forms of using anti-Sovietism in the ideological struggle of American imperialism against the USSR, countries of the socialist community and brotherly communist parties.

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INTERNATIONAL

BOOK EXAMINES REVOLUTIONARY REFORMS IN LATIN AMERICA

Moscow LATINSKAYA AMERIKA: OPYT NARODNYKH KOALITSII I KLASSOVAYA BOR'BA in Russian 1981 (signed to press 20 Feb 81) pp 1-2, 255-256

[Table of contents and brief description of book by M. F. Gornov and V. G. Tkachenko]

[Excerpts] Title Page:

Title: LATINSKAYA AMERIKA: OPYT NARODNYKH KOALITSII I KLASSOVAYA BOR'BA
(Latin America: The Experience of National Coalitions and the
Class Struggle)

Publisher: Politizdat

Place and year of publication: Moscow, 1981

Signed to Press Date: 20 February 1981

Number of Copies Published: 30,000

Number of Pages: 256

Brief Description:

This book by M. F. Gornov, doctor of historical sciences, and V. G. Tkachenko, a journalist specializing in international affairs, is about the most important events on the Latin American continent in the 1970's to the beginning of the 1980's. The authors analyze the revolutionary processes in countries of this region and expose the policies of American imperialism and local reaction, the nature of Latin American fascism. They show the process of unifying progressive, democratic forces. The book devotes significant attention to the victory of the Nicaraguan people and the struggle against fascist dictatorships in Salvador, Bolivia and Chile. The book is intended for the general public.

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NATIONAL

NEW TYPOLOGY FOR ATHEISTS, BELIEVERS OUTLINED

Alma-Ata ATEISTICHESKOMU VOSPITANIYU--DIFFERENTSIROVANNY PODKHOD in Russian 1981
(signed to press 28 Feb 81), title page, pp 3-6

[Title page and excerpt from book "A Differentiated Approach to Atheistic Education",
by A.K. Rende, Znaniye Society of the Kazakh SSR, 28 pages]

[Text] A number of researchers have pointed out that the differentiated approach to atheistic education includes three main aspects: social (residence, nationality, class); demographic (age, sex); and ideological (attitude toward religion and atheism, education, and consideration of religious denomination, modernistic trends in modern religions and so forth).*

The need for a differentiated application of means and types and forms and methods in atheistic education is associated with the fact that the general social features making up the Soviet people still do not signify that they are completely equal. Significant differences still exist in people's social positions, education, qualifications, professional activities, degree of intensity in initiative in the public sphere and so forth. The differentiated approach to atheistic work presupposes a selective approach not only toward believers and waverers, but also toward atheists. The most important thing is that it provides an opportunity of overcoming abstraction in atheistic education and of carrying on a conversation not with individuals in general but with a specific individual, makes it possible to take into account his specific features, changes in consciousness, psychology and living conditions, and opens up a way for improving the forms and methods of atheistic education.

The differentiated approach to atheistic education is impossible without a knowledge of the degree of atheistic or religious conviction in a group of workers. In both theory and practice it is usual to talk of two large groups of people, namely believers and nonbelievers, or religious and irreligious. But on the question of

* M.Ya. Lensu, "Osnovy ateisticheskogo vospitaniya" [Bases of Atheistic Education] Minsk, Vysshaya shkola, 1976, p 203; M.Ya. Lensu, V.A. Chernyak and A.I. Artem'yev, "A Differentiated Approach to Atheistic Education," in "Voprosy nauchnogo ateizma" [Questions of Scientific Atheism] 9th edition, Moscow, Mysl', 1970 p 135; and A.S. Onishchenko, "Sotsial'nyy progress, religiya, ateizm" [Social Progress, Religion and Atheism], Kiev, Naukova Dumka, 1977, pp 176-203.

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the typology of each of these groups there is no unified opinion. A number of researchers distinguish up to eight different types among the irreligious: atheists, convinced nonbelievers, irreligious conformists, people who are indifferent, nonbelievers with a religious-positive world outlook, and so forth.*

In our view the most successful on the theoretical plane, and most suitable on the practical, is the division suggested by other researchers using three signs for the groups that are relatively generalized in terms of a whole series of specifics: these are confirmed atheists, nonbelievers, and those indifferent or passive with respect to religion and atheism.**

Each of the three groups of the irreligious population possesses a different degree of atheistic conviction and activity.

Convinced atheists not only have a firm atheistic world outlook but are also quite active in their everyday lives in speaking out against religion. The most active of them occupy positions of militant atheism and as a rule they propagandize scientific atheism and organize the atheistic education of the workers.

The irreligious or elemental atheists in the main also act as a socially active sector of the population. They have sufficiently firm atheistic convictions. But the degree of their atheistic activity is substantially less than in the first group. They do not see a need to struggle against religion. Some of them have a conciliatory attitude toward religion.

Those indifferent or passive to religion and atheism are characterized by a lack of belief in a god or other supernatural forces. In terms of their social activity they differ little from the first two groups, but at the same time one of their typical features is atheistic passivity.***

* M.K. Teplyakov, "The Victory of Atheism in Different Social Strata of Soviet Society" in "Voprosy nauchnogo ateizma [Questions of Scientific Atheism], 4th edition, Moscow, 1967; V.A. Chernyak, "Formirovaniye nauchno-materialisticheskogo ateisticheskogo mirovozzreniya (sotsiologicheskiye problemy) [Formation of a Scientific-Materialistic Atheistic World Outlook (Sociological Problems)], Alma-Ata, 1969; and D.M. Aptekman, "Formirovaniye ateisticheskoy ubezhdenosti rabochego klassa v razvitom sotsialisticheskom obshchestve" [Formation of Atheistic Conviction in the Working Class in a Developed Socialist Society], Leningrad State University, 1979; and others.

** P.D. Selivanov, "Partiynoye rukovodstvo ateisticheskim vospitaniyem" [Party Handbook on Atheistic Education], Moscow, 1973; M.Ya Lensu, V.A. Chernyak and A.I. Artem'yev. "A Differential Approach to Atheistic Education" op. cit.; and R.P. Platonov. "V poiskakh vysokoy deystvennosti" [The Search for High Effectiveness], Moscow, 1976.

*** For more detail see P.D. Selivanov Op. cit. pp 99-102.

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Let us now consider the typological groups of believers. Here, some researchers distinguish two groups others three or more. In our view, all believers should be divided into three typological groups: convinced or orthodox believers, elemental or nonorthodox believers, and doubting believers. Each of the three groups has its own specific features and characteristics signs that must be taken into account when organizing atheistic work.

Convinced believers are those for whom the main biblical myths and religious dogmas determining the very essence of religion have become a personal conviction. They are characterized by active participation in all religious services and open defense of their religious views and actions. Many of the convinced believers engage in missionary activities. Some in this group occupy positions of religious fanaticism and extremism, and individual representatives have slid into the swamp of anti-Sovietism.

The elemental believers mainly do not have firm religious convictions and have a poor knowledge of dogmatics and mythology but nevertheless engage in quite active but irregular participation in religious services. As a rule they do not try to impose their religious views on anyone and do not openly flaunt them, although they do not hide them.

The doubting believers are not distinguished by the wholeheartedness and firmness of their religious consciousness, know practically nothing about dogma and myths, very rarely participate in religious services, frequently express profound doubts about the truth of their convictions, and are unable to offer convincing proofs for their religiosity. Many of them do not even believe in the existence of god, life beyond the grave and other religious postulates.

If these groups are arranged according to the degree of weakening in atheism and increased religiosity, the groups of convinced atheists and the convinced believers form the two extremes. Each of these groups can be arbitrarily divided into subgroups: in the former case militant atheism and in the latter, religious fanaticism.

In the center stand the indifferent atheists and doubting believers. That is, the closer to the center, the lower both the atheistic and the religious conviction.

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REGIONAL

UZBEK LABOR PROBLEMS, PROSPECTS DESCRIBED

Moscow ISTORIYA SSSR in Russian No 6, Nov-Dec 81 pp 26-40

[Article by G. A. Shister: "Sources for the Replenishment of Uzbekistan's Working Class During the Stage of Developed Socialism"]

[Text] Among the basic directions in the development of social sciences during the present stage, the 26th CPSU Congress placed research on the processes, which are taking place in the social structure of Soviet society, in one of the first places. The scientific analysis of replenishment sources for the working class occupies an important place in the study of this problem.

A number of works, devoted to labor resource problems and the reproduction of manpower in which this subject is touched upon, were published in Uzbekistan during the Sixties and Seventies.¹ However, questions on ways to more rationally use the sources for replenishing the working class in the republic have still not received the necessary treatment.

The goal of analyzing the activity of the republic's party, soviet and economic organs in solving this problem has been assigned in the article. This will permit more attention to be attracted to it and contribute to the dissemination of the experience which has been accumulated in regions having an analogous demographic situation.

* * *

The ratio of working class replenishment sources is determined primarily by the social structure of Soviet society and by those changes which are taking place in it. During the stage of mature socialism, the tendency toward the rapid coming together of classes and social groups and progressive eradication of the differences between them is the leading one. L. I. Brezhnev declared in the report of the CPSU Central Committee to the 26th Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union: "Our goal is the creation of a society in which there will not be a division of people into classes. And it is possible to say definitely: We are gradually but confidently moving toward this great goal."²

The movement of the Soviet people towards social uniformity, which is determined by the consistent policy of the party and state concerning the internationalization of

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the country's economic, social and political life, is shown also in the growing rapprochement of the nations and nationalities in their social structure. This is reflected primarily in the increase in the proportion of republic working class detachments. In 1959, workers were 39.2 percent³ of the employed population in Uzbekistan; in 1970 -- 45.7 percent; and in 1979 (based on Central Statistical Directorate data) -- 52.9 percent.

Working class replenishment sources are identical for all the country, but their ratio and use are conditioned a great deal by a republic's specialization within the all-union division of labor. This specialization is planned by the union government depending on natural conditions and material and labor resources. They are determined by the settlement conditions which took shape historically, by the nature of migration processes, by national traditions, etc. The fact that the development of industry took place and is taking place where there is a significant predominance in the population of rural area inhabitants who are oriented on working in the agrarian sector of the economy and in the branches associated with it, is a peculiarity of the Central Asian region, including Uzbekistan. Large natural increases and an extremely low outflow of representatives of the indigenous nationalities beyond the limits of their republic, which is conditioned by ethnic features and national traditions, are typical of this region.

The working class itself is the main source for replenishing it. K. Marx wrote that "the most progressive workers are fully aware that the future of their class and consequently of mankind entirely depends on the upbringing of the rising generation"⁴. The Communist Party is displaying tireless concern for the replenishment of the leading class in socialist society with its sons and daughters.

As the works of Soviet sociologists show, the children of worker families provided a large part of the working class replacements during the Sixties and Seventies. Thus, in the Leningrad machine building industry, they reached 56 percent of all those questioned; in the Moscow region -- 77 percent; in Bashkiriya -- 58.1; and in Uzbekistan, 51.3 percent (1971) in the Chirchikskiy Electrochemical Combine, the Tashkent Electronic Equipment Plant, and in the "Tashtekstil'mash" Plant.

The mentioned conformity to law has an objective nature. However, a subjective factor plays a large role in it. A great deal of work is being done in Uzbekistan under the leadership of the party organization to increase the portion of hereditary workers in the overall number of industrial personnel. Party, trade union and Komsomol organizations are indoctrinating the rising generation in revolutionary and work traditions. Museums and rooms of fame, in which rich material on worker houses is presented, are being established in enterprises. Documents on workers, whose fathers took part in carrying out the socialist revolution in Uzbekistan, are on exhibit in the Museum of Military and Work Glory in the Plant imeni Oktyabr'skaya revolyutsiya.

Among the famous worker houses of the republic, one cannot fail to mention the Os'kin family (Tashkentskoye Aviation Production Association) whose ancestors, - Mikhail Nikolayevich, and his wife, Klaydiya Vasil'yevna gave 60 years to their native plant and brought five children to it; the Nuritdinov family of metallurgists who are

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working in the rolling workshop of the Uzbek Metallurgical Plant imeni V. I. Lenin for the third decade, -- the senior member of the family -- Said, a Hero of Socialist Labor -- for more than 30 years; the Val'kov family who have worked in one of the machine building plants of Uzbekistan's capital in toto for more than 100 years; and the Ikramovs from the Namanganskiy [avrov] Cloth Combine imeni 25th CPSU Congress, the "oldest" worker dynasty in the republic -- the total length of its work activity is more than 250 years.¹⁰

Investigations which have been conducted by us in a number of Uzbekistan's enterprises, testify that many of their workers are second and even third generations of worker dynasties. In the Chirchikskiy Electrochemical Combine, the parents or close relatives of 18 percent of those questioned in 1961 and of 23 percent in 1971 had worked there. In the "Tashtekstil'mash" Plant, the parents of 23 percent of the workers had worked in the plant according to a 1971 investigation (some had worked there from the day of its founding or had been evacuated with the plant during the Great Patriotic War).

It is necessary to point out that statistics do not give exhaustive information on working class replenishment sources; however, information from specific sociological research in the republic's industrial enterprises confirms the conclusion that the role of the working class as a source for forming its own replacements is growing in Uzbekistan just as throughout the entire country, and, consequently,¹¹ the absolute number and proportion of hereditary workers are increasing.

The kolkhoz peasantry continued to be one of the major sources for replenishing the working class during the Sixties and Seventies. However, as is pointed out in the literature, its share gradually decreased on the whole throughout the country.¹² By the Seventies, the opportunities for drawing kolkhoz workers into the ranks of the working class had practically been exhausted in many areas of the country in connection with the rapid urbanization rates. Whereas the USSR rural population decreased by 3.1 million individuals during the period between the 1959 and 1970 All-Union Population Census, it decreased by 6.9 million individuals between 1970 and 1979. In nine years, the overall number of rural people decreased by 6.5 points at a time when the urban population share increased from 56 to 62 percent.¹³

The mentioned tendency does not operate with equal force in all regions of the country. Based on the degree of decrease criterion, the most urbanized republics of the Soviet Union now are: The Estonian SSR (70 percent), the RSFSR (69 percent), the Latvian SSR (68 percent), the Armenian SSR (66 percent), The Ukrainian SSR (61 percent), the Lithuanian SSR (61 percent), the Belorussian SSR (55 percent) and the Kazakh SSR (54 percent).

However, in the republics of the Central Asian region where -- with the exception of Tajikistan -- the proportion of the rural population also had a tendency to decrease, the absolute number of the rural population grew in Kirghizia by 18 percent, in Uzbekistan by 21 percent, and in Turkmenia by 28 percent during the period between the 1970 and 1979 census.¹⁴ The highest growth in rural population was observed in Tajikistan (36 percent) during this period.¹⁵

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Thus, in contrast to a number of the country's central rayons, the rural population, including the kolkhoz peasantry, has large potential opportunities available in Uzbekistan, just as in the other Central Asian republics, not only for its own reproduction but also for replenishing the working class.

When evaluating the labor resources of Uzbekistan and the opportunities for redistributing a portion of the able-bodied population from agricultural production to industry, planning organs proceed from the fact that the population is distributed extremely unevenly over the republic's territory. In this connection, some rayons and oblasts have experienced a shortage in manpower; others -- a surplus in it. On 1 January 1980, the population density in Uzbekistan reached 35.2 individuals per one square kilometer. However, whereas it was equal only to 5.6 individuals in the Karakalpakskaya ASSR, 9.0 in Bukharskaya Oblast, 25.7 in Dzhizakskaya Oblast, and 40.7 in Kashkadar'inskaya Oblast; it was 328.5 individuals in Andizhanskaya Oblast, 244.1 in Ferganskaya Oblast, 233.6 in Khorezmskaya Oblast, and 143.0 in Namanganskaya Oblast.¹⁶ The population density continues to grow in a number of overpopulated oblasts. From 1970 to 1980 alone, it increased by 76.4 individuals in Andizhanskaya Oblast, by 56.5 in Ferganskaya Oblast, and by 35.8 in Namanganskaya Oblast.

In these oblasts, the size of sown areas for each worker employed in agriculture is decreasing more and more sharply. This is having a negative effect on the opportunities for using existing labor resources on the kolkhozes, and consequently, on increasing labor productivity.

Estimates of the UzSSR State Committee for Labor show that scientific and technical progress and the growth of labor productivity, which has been achieved based on it, are leading -- especially in agriculture -- to the freeing of workers and making the redistribution of a portion of the labor resources in branch and territorial sections possible and at the same time necessary.¹⁷ In 1970, 29 percent of the total number of Uzbekistan's able-bodied kolkhoz workers could have been freed. During subsequent years, the percent of workers kept above the required number became even higher on the republic's cotton growing kolkhozes.

The study of the nature of migration processes and the distribution and use of labor resources in Uzbekistan leads many researchers to conclude that the needs of industry for working cadres cannot be satisfied by the move of the republic's surplus rural population to the cities. In carrying out the CPSU's policy to equalize the economic levels of the republics and in considering the specifics of migration, the low mobility of the rural -- especially the indigenous -- population and the high prosperity of a number of rural regions in labor resources, the Communist Party of Uzbekistan is carrying out a broad system of measures to industrialize the republic's small and medium cities and rural rayons. In doing this, the party proceeds from the fact that the siting of industrial installations in agrarian type rayons and the drawing of the rural population into the ranks of the working class will contribute to changing the people's way of life and their social and psychological constitution.

The creation of industrial installations in small and medium cities and in rural areas does not always mean the construction there of new independent enterprises;

as a rule, they are branches of plants, factories and large industrial associations or their shops which produce parts. The economic effectiveness of the creation of these installations does not evoke any doubts. Their opening does not require large capital investments. The plants themselves, when they have transferred the output of individual units and components to the branches, receive an opportunity to concentrate their efforts on the more important tasks. In addition, the creation of these small enterprises is not connected with the move of workers, large scale housing construction, etc. F. Engels wrote: in order that "... people, who have been ousted from agriculture, not be left without work or forced to crowd into cities, it is necessary to employ them in industrial work in the village itself."¹⁸

The policy of improving the planning of siting productive forces and the construction of industrial installations in small cities and urban settlements was reflected in the decisions of the 16th (1961), 17th (1966) and 18th (1971) Congresses of the Uzbek Communist Party.

Speaking at the 19th Congress of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan (1976), Sh. R. Rashidov pointed out that, within the system of measures which have been carried out by the Uzbek Communist Party for the development of productive forces, the equalizing of the economic development level of the oblasts and the industrialization of rural rayons and small cities have had large social significance. It is necessary to follow this line in the future. The erection of enterprises in the village will permit a working class to be formed there and productive forces to be developed in a more planned and rational manner.¹⁹

It is necessary to point out that the work performed in Uzbekistan to industrialize agrarian rayons and small cities contributes to the policy of limiting the growth of large cities and to the development of the economic structure of prospective small and medium cities.

Akhangaran is one of the new industrial centers which arose during the years of the 8th and 9th Five-Year Plans in Uzbekistan. A cement combine, a ferro-concrete item plant, the "Santekhlit" Plant, and the "Stroyplastmass" Combine were built here. The urban settlement grew with new housing and social and personal services enterprises. Akhangaran became a rayon center in 1971, and was converted to a city of oblast subordination in 1976.²⁰

The development path of another city in Tashkentskaya Oblast, Narimanov -- the former Bektemir, is similar. Its industrial appearance took shape during the years of the 9th Five-Year Plan. A total of 50 industrial enterprises and construction, motor transport and other organizations and establishments were operating here in 1976. The number of enterprises doubled in comparison with 1970; and the volume of products produced, which number more than 20 types of different industrial items (metal structure, reinforced concrete, etc.) tripled. Housing assets (less individual houses) exceeded 100,000 square meters; and schools, pre-school establishments, hospitals, dispensaries, etc. are being built.²¹

In accordance with "The Basic Directions for the Development of the USSR National Economy for 1976-1980" which was adopted by the 25th CPSU Congress, even more

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substantial changes for the better in the siting of productive forces in Uzbekistan took place during the 10th Five-Year Plan. As was pointed out during the 20th Congress of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan (1981), the Central Committee of the Communist Party and the government of the republic did not disregard a single valuable initiative aimed at giving a new and vital impulse to small cities, settlements and rayon centers. During the 10th Five-Year Plan, 290 branches and workshops, in which almost 30,000 people were employed, were created in Uzbekistan.²²

Significant successes have been achieved in Andizhanskaya Oblast. During the years of the 10th Five-Year Plan, 60 enterprises, branches and workshops were put into operation in various rayons of the oblast. The commissioning of the first section of the Andizhanskiy Cotton Combine a year ahead of schedule was a great victory for the oblast's working class' party organization. Five of its branches, two of which were put into operation²³ by the opening day of the 26th CPSU Congress, are being erected in the oblast.

There were, all told, three industrial enterprises on the territory of unploughed Dzhizakskaya Oblast in the early 1960's. They became more than 60 during the 10th Five-Year Plan. Alkaline battery plants; a carpet combine; a lead-cement mine; a factory for obtaining wollastonite concentrate; and food industry, cotton processing, construction industry, transport, and communications enterprises were built at the new technological level.²⁴ Similar examples can be cited for other oblasts.

Positive changes for the better in the distribution of industrial production personnel occurred as a result of the carrying out of the party's policy on improving the siting of productive forces in the republic.

Before the beginning of the Seventies, the main mass of industrial workers was concentrated in the larger industrial centers. Thus, in 1970, 54% of all its industrial production personnel were concentrated in Tashkentaskaya Oblast (including Tashkent), where 21 percent of the UzSSR population lived. At the time, industrial production personnel were only 7.5 percent of the total number in Syrdar'inskaya, Kashkadar'inskaya, Surkhandar'inskaya, and Khorezmskaya Oblasts which had a 22.6 percent share of Uzbekistan's population.²⁵

On 1 January 1978, 23.5 percent of the republic's entire population (+ [sic] 2.5 points in comparison with 1970) lived in Tashkentaskaya Oblast (including the city of Tashkent); however, the proportion of industrial production personnel had decreased by 6.2 points and stood at 47.8 percent.²⁶ During this same time, in the four compared oblasts (although the number of people here decreased from 22.6 to 20.4 percent), the proportion²⁷ of industrial production personnel grew by 2.1 points and reached 9.6 percent.

During the Sixties and Seventies, the proportion of workers and employees in industry located in rural areas almost doubled thanks to the successful work of Uzbekistan's party organization in industrializing agrarian rayons and in drawing rural inhabitants into industry:

Table 1. Dynamics of the Proportion of Uzbekistan's Workers and Employees During the Period 1960 - 1970

	1960	1970	1975	1977
In urban settlements	92.6	87.8	87.5	86.7
In rural areas	7.4	12.2	12.5	13.3

Despite the fact that the number of industrial workers is growing from year to year due to the flow of rural inhabitants, this manpower reserve is not only not decreasing but, on the contrary, is increasing in connection with the high natural increase. Based on forecasts for 1990, the number of people in the republic will reach 22 million individuals. This will require even greater efforts to increase the number of work sites and expand the training of qualified personnel.²⁸

A resolution of the 20th Congress of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan points out the special importance of creating branches of enterprises in small cities and rural areas.²⁹ It is planned to open 450-500 of them, including on kolkhozes and sovkhoses, during the 11th Five-Year Plan.³⁰

However, it would be a mistake to think that the striving for a more rational siting of industrial enterprises is not running into serious problems. One cannot fail to note that the textile combines which have been constructed in Andizhan and Namangan have not worked at full capacity for a long time because of a shortage of manpower -- at a time when there are considerable reserves of able-bodied people in these cities. The opening of even small installations and workshop branches requires the creation of an infrastructure servicing production -- the construction of schools, children's institutions and medical facilities, the organization of transport and communications, etc. The solution of these tasks³¹ does not always keep step with the erection of the industrial installations.

The training of qualified personnel is also an important and complicated problem. In contrast to many of the country's central rayons where kolkhozes are experiencing a critical shortage of manpower in connection with the flow of rural youth to the cities, the redistribution of kolkhoz youth to industry and other branches of the national economy has taken place at slow tempos in Uzbekistan. For example, in 1968, 36 percent of the total number of able-bodied youth and juveniles stayed to work on the kolkhozes and in 1970 -- 43 percent. This exceeded the number of young people who went to factories and plants 1.9-fold. It is necessary to point out that 68 percent of the juveniles up to 18 years of age who arrived on the kolkhozes had a secondary education (complete or incomplete).

The situation changed during subsequent years. In 1974-1975, of those who finished the eighth and tenth grades in general educational schools, 60.2 percent of those sent to the national economy were employed in agriculture. Graduates of rural school eighth and tenth grades formed the main mass (97 percent).

The replenishment of the republic's kolkhozes and sovkhoses with youth having a secondary education undoubtedly increases the cultural and technical level of

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agricultural workers; however, agricultural production is not in a condition at the present time to provide all this mass of young men and girls with work which corresponds to the level of their training. This is not always taken into consideration by public organizations. Cases are not infrequent where in places with a large surplus in the rural population and a low migratory mobility, they call upon the pupils to advance with an initiative of the type "as an entire class -- to the native kolkhoz", although there is not enough work for the existing workers on that kolkhoz.³² These tendencies are also found in Uzbekistan. Thus, as a positive example of the pupils' purposeful professional orientation, the press told about the initiative of the Komsomol graduates in one of the schools of Pastdargomskiy Rayon of Samarkandskaya Oblast who stayed as an entire class to work on their native kolkhoz,³³ although 125,000 people (93 percent) lived in rural areas and only 9,000 (7 percent) in cities in this rayon.³⁴ In 1977, more than 12,000 young men and women of Samarkandskaya Oblast in answer to an initiative of their peers -- graduates of schools in Kostromskaya Oblast -- stayed to work in agricultural production.³⁵ Meanwhile, in Kostromskaya Oblast with a population density of 13.3 people, the proportion of the rural population was only 37 percent on 1 January 1977 -- at a time when the population density in Samarkandskaya Oblast was five-fold greater (67.5 people) and 70 percent of the entire population lived in rural areas.³⁶

The present conditions of the country's social and economic development require that the indoctrinational work among youth, who live in the thickly populated rural rayons of Uzbekistan, stir up the migratory mobility of the young men and women and contribute to their professional and cultural growth and to an increase in the proportion of industrial workers.

The new policy for developing professional and technical education in the village, which contributes to strengthening migratory processes and social shifts, must play an important role in the solution of this task. The Communist Party of Uzbekistan is orienting party organizations toward the creation of professional training establishments in rural areas for the training not only of agricultural personnel but also of construction and industrial cadres. The following fact testifies to the effectiveness of this way of solving the problem. In 1972, a branch of the Namanganskiy [avrov] Cloth Combine imeni the 25th CPSU Congress with a capacity of more than 400,000 linear meters of [khantalas] and [bekasab] a year was put into operation in Uchkurgan. Long before the opening of the enterprise, the party organization and board of directors were concerned about personnel. Experienced workers were sent to the branch for their training; at the same time, the graduation of a special professional technical institute levy was arranged on a branch basis. A total of 180 young men and girls³⁷ from the Uchkurganskiy Rayon underwent training and received work certificates. These measures ensured the normal and uninterrupted work of the shop from the very beginning.

A complete network of professional technical institutes servicing the rural area has already been created in the republic. The "Navoiyazot" Production Association has opened a GPTU [city professional technical institute] on the Kolkhoz imeni F. Engels in Gizhduvanskiy Rayon of Bukharskaya Oblast; and the oil workers -- in the settlement of Kakaydy in Dzarkurganskiy Rayon of Surkhandar'inskaya Oblast. Personnel are being trained in Leninskiy Rayon of Andizhanskaya Oblast for a branch of the tractor plant. These professional technical institutes are contributing to

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the solution of an important social task -- the training of rural youth in urban professions and the shift of surplus manpower from rural areas to the cities where the need for qualified specialists is continuously growing.³⁸

However, these measures are insufficient to solve the problem completely. According to estimates of the Uzbek SSR Gosplan and the UzSSR Academy of Sciences, only 61.6 percent of all the workers trained in the republic (as opposed to 26.5 percent in 1975) will have a professional technical education. In this connection, The USSR Gosplan has pointed out that "along with the priority development of a network of professional technical institutes in the republics of Central Asia and the Transcaucasus, it is also necessary to send the youth of these republics for training in other regions of the country with the agreement of the interested departments".³⁹ One must send a larger number of youth (especially rural) to the country's all-union leading construction projects where they can acquire a work profession and improve their qualifications.

Of course, the reorientation of a portion of the rural population, especially youth, to industrial types of work must be built on a scientific foundation which is based on the optimum age structure of those employed in agriculture. It is necessary to correlate the solution of this important social problem with the opening up of new lands which is taking place in the republic and with the planned transfer of a portion of the flow of Siberian rivers to the Aral Sea basin.

The training of industrial workers in the village has an important political aspect -- it is actively contributing to a growth in the preparation of workers of local nationality in the republic's working class.

Statistics testify that in Uzbekistan, just as throughout all of Central Asia, the indigenous population forms the larger part of the inhabitants in the rural areas where significant reserves of manpower are concentrated. According to data from the 1970 All-Union Population Census, Uzbeks were 95.5 percent -- in Samarkandskaya; 85.1 percent -- in Kishkadar'inskaya;⁴⁰ 81.4 percent -- in Namanganskaya; and 80.2 percent -- in Andizhanskaya Oblasts.

The construction of industrial installations in oblasts with surplus labor resources contributes not only to an equalization of the level of industrial development but also to a more intensive drawing of persons of local nationality from predominantly single nationality rural collectives into industry and international worker collectives. This process requires a great deal of attention from party, state and public organizations. Questions, connected with it, have been repeatedly discussed during congresses of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan and plenums of the republic's Communist Party Central Committee. Appropriate decisions have been strictly implemented by oblast, city and rayon party organizations and by the collectives of industrial enterprises. All this has contributed to raising the number and proportion of workers of local nationality.

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Based on data from the 1959 and 1970 all-union censuses and from one-time registrations, in Uzbekistan people of the main nationality (Uzbeks)* were 26.7 percent in industry in 1959, 31.2 percent in 1967 and 35.5 percent in 1973. It is important to emphasize that a growth in the number of Uzbeks was also observed during these years in other detachments of industrial workers. The proportion of Uzbeks in construction grew from 30.1 percent to 34.8 percent from 1967 to 1973; in transport -- from 35.8 percent to 41.2 percent, and in communications -- from 35.9 percent to 40.7 percent.⁴¹

During 1967 - 1973, the proportion of representatives of the main nationality grew at more rapid rates in light industry -- from 44.5 percent to 53.9 percent, in the food industry -- from 34.2 percent to 45 percent, and in the oil industry -- from 34.1 percent to 42.8 percent.⁴² This is explained to a considerable degree by the fact that many of the enterprises in these branches are located in rayons where the Uzbek nationality predominates.

However, in a number of branches of heavy industry which are connected with more modern equipment and production technology, the proportion of the indigenous population was significantly lower than the general republic level.

The Central Committee of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan is directing the activity of the State Committee for Labor, ministries, departments, and party organizations to the formation of national cadres for industry considering an important demographic factor -- the high rates of natural increase among the local nationalities. The 1979 population census showed that the proportion of Uzbeks in the overall republic population increased from 62.1 percent⁴³ to 68.7 percent⁴⁴ during the period 1959 - 1979.

The problem of attracting the representatives of local nationalities to industry was a subject of review at the 6th (1972) Plenum of the Uzbek Communist Party Central Committee which discussed the question "On Further Improving Work With Cadres in Light of the Decisions of the 24th CPSU Congress"⁴⁵.

The training of national cadres in the republic received a new and broader scope after the 25th CPSU Congress which pointed out that "the improvement of the training of local qualified cadres continues to be one of the urgent problems of primary party organizations."⁴⁶

Improving the work to implement the decisions of the 25th CPSU Congress and the 19th Congress of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan could not fail to affect the further growth of the proportion of persons of local nationalities in the industrial detachments of the workers. Whereas the proportion of Uzbeks was 35.5 percent in industry in 1973, it was 38.2 percent in 1977; in construction -- 34.8 and 35.6 percent respectively; and in transport -- 41.2 and 44.4 percent.⁴⁷ As in previous years, the highest proportion of persons of the main nationality (Uzbeks) was

* Kazakhs, Tajiks, Karakalpaks, Kirghiz and Turkmens are also regarded as local nationalities. Counting them, the percent of industrial workers of local nationality is significantly higher. However, the Central Statistical Directorate singles out from all the workers only persons of the main nationality (Uzbeks) in the one-time registrations.

in the textile (57.5 percent), light (56.0 percent), food (45.4 percent), and oil (43.0 percent) industries. In machine building, it reached 18.3 percent (+ 2-3 points) in comparison with 1973, and in the chemical industry -- 20 percent (+1.7 points). As can be seen, the tendency, noted in the Sixties, also developed steadily during the 9th and 10th Five-Year Plans.

The growth in the number of national cadres by attracting rural inhabitants to production was also a direct result of the new work forms which the collectives of a number of industrial enterprises are using.

In the Tashkentskiy Textile Combine, the proportion of local cadres as part of the workers had not reached 20 percent by the beginning of the Sixties. The situation became worse after the 1966 earthquake and due to the opening of textile combines in the republic's oblast centers. It managed to improve after special bus service between the enterprises and near-by rural rayons with surplus labor resources -- the Kommunisticheskiy, Kalininskiy, Ordzhonikidzevskiy, Srednechirchikskiy, and Tashkentskiy rural rayons-- was organized on the party committee's initiative. This permitted Uzbek girls to be enlisted in the work. Each day, about 500 young girls -- representatives of the local nationalities and yesterday's kolkhoz workers -- took their work positions at weaving, spinning, carding and other textile machines. It is possible to judge the growth of national cadres in the Tashkentskiy Textile Combine from the data in Table 2 which testifies that their proportion in the number of workers in the combine grew more than twofold and the number of Uzbek women -- almost fourfold.

Table 2. Proportion of Persons of Local Nationality in the
Number of Workers at the Tashkentskiy Textile Combine*

	1966	1970	1973	1975	1975 [sic]	1979
Total of persons of local nationality	17.1	20.4	29.9	31.9	36.4	40.3
including Uzbeks	14.1	13.4	23.2	24.7	37.2	31.6
Males of local nationality	10.1	11.5	12.5	13.0	14.9	14.4
including Uzbeks	9.4	10.6	11.0	11.5	11.9	12.7
Females of local nationality	7.0	8.4	17.4	18.9	21.5	25.9
including Uzbeks	4.7	6.8	12.2	13.1	15.2	17.9

* The table was compiled based on data from the work and wages section of the Tashkentskiy Textile Combine for 1 January of each year.

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True, the personnel problem at the combine has still not been completely solved; a shortage remains. Not all workers have high indicators in labor productivity and good discipline at first. The percent of fluctuation in the enterprises is great. However, the positive prospects for a pendulum migration to draw female kolkhoz workers into the ranks of the working class are undoubted. It is important to point out that the parents of the Uzbek girls regard these social changes positively.

An analysis of the republic's social and economic life shows that the migration of labor resources from the village to the city is in the formation stage. Nevertheless, with each year it exerts a transforming effect on an ever greater number of people. Many rural inhabitants, when they are included in industrial production, rapidly adapt to the new conditions and achieve high indicators in work.

The name of Dil'bar Kul'matova is known today not only in Uzbekistan. She arrived in Tashkent from Akkurgan in 1970 after finishing a secondary school. A year of studies in a professional technical institute -- and Dil'bar became a worker in the Tashkentskiy Textile Combine. The young weaver very soon became one of the combine's best production workers and the initiator of and participant in work initiatives. She began to service 48 weaving machines when the typical norm was 24. Today, Dil'bar is a deputy to the USSR Supreme Soviet, a Leninist Komsomol prize winner, and a Vinogradov sister; she has been awarded the order "Badge of Honor." She combines her work with studies in the Tashkentskiy Institute for the Light and Textile Industries without giving up work. Her three sisters are also working in the combine.

The Mavliyev family of airplane builders, whose parents were agronomists, enjoys widespread fame in the republic.⁴⁸ Rural inhabitants -- the three Yuldashev brothers -- have also founded a dynasty of miners. The oldest one -- Babanazar -- has been awarded⁴⁹ the orders of Lenin and the Labor Red Banner for his many years of heroic work.

The need to expand the training of qualified worker personnel from the local population, especially from the rural youth in the republics⁵⁰ of Central Asia, was emphasized again in the decisions of the 26th CPSU Congress.

Along with the steady growth trend in national cadres within the composition of Uzbekistan's workers, the speeding up of scientific and technical progress and the industrialization and urbanization of the country are accompanied by the internationalization of all public life. The composition of the working class' republic detachments is becoming more and more multinational.

For example, workers of 45 nationalities are working in the Almalykskiy Mining and Metallurgical Combine; of 41 -- in the Tashkentskiy Textile Combine; of 32 -- in the Chirchikskiy Electrochemical Combine; of 30 -- in the Bekabadskiy Cement Plant; and of 27 -- in the Tashkentskiy Plant imeni the October Revolution.⁵¹ Qualified specialists who have arrived from the RSFSR, the Ukraine and Belorussia, are actively contributing to the accelerated development of productive forces and to the formation and improvement of the training of worker cadres.

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Some authors justifiably think that it is illegal to call the republic's worker detachments national detachments because this socialist class was formed in the republics from the beginning on an international basis, being an integral component of the USSR working class -- the leading social force of the indestructible unity of the Soviet people. It seems that it is more correct to classify them as republic detachments of the working class (RSFSR workers, Ukrainian SSR workers, etc.)⁵² It is necessary to emphasize that it is the working class which embodies the international unity of the Soviet Union's worker detachments and which is exerting a growing influence on improving the social uniformity of the nations and nationalities which form a single Soviet people.

The able-bodied population, not employed in public production, is an important source and reserve for replenishing the USSR working class, including that of the UzSSR. However, this reserve had basically been exhausted in the country as a whole by the end of the Sixties. Whereas, more than half of the increase in workers in public production (53 percent) had been obtained from 1961 to 1965 by including in it persons engaged in housekeeping or in the private auxiliary economy, there were twice as many fewer in the next five year period (1966-1970).⁵³ Of the 130.5 million working age individuals, those employed in the national economy and students were 120.6 million individuals or 92.4 percent in 1970 as opposed to 82 percent in 1959. The number of persons engaged in housekeeping and the private economy decreased from 17.9 million in 1959 to 5.9 million individuals in 1970.⁵⁴

When defining the prospects for drawing the able-bodied population into production, the 25th CPSU congress pointed out that the problem of using labor resources during the Eighties would become even more acute because of the decrease in their natural increase.⁵⁵ This proposition was again emphasized during the 26th CPSU Congress. It is sufficient to say that, during the period 1981-1990, the total growth of the working age population will decline to 3.8 percent as opposed to 18 percent in 1971-1980. However, the unfavorable demographic situation, which is taking shape, does not affect a number of republics with high natural increases and the presence of a significant portion of able-bodied people not employed in the national economy. Speaking on 22 September 1978 in Baku on the occasion of the presentation of the Order of Lenin to the city, L. I. Brezhnev pointed out that in Azerbaijan and the other republics of the Caucasus, as well as in Central Asia, a considerable portion of the able-bodied population had still not been drawn into public production.⁵⁶ Basically, this consisted of women who had never worked in the national economy or who had left an enterprise after marriage and who were engaged in raising children and housekeeping or in the private economy.

In the UzSSR, the inadequate drawing of the unemployed able-bodied population into public production is typical not only of rural areas but also of cities. At the end of the Sixties, the proportion of this category of the population was 30 percent in the urban population centers of Tashkentskaya, Andizhanskaya and Bukharskaya Oblasts and more than 40 percent in Syrdar'inskaya Oblast.⁵⁷ At the same time, 92 percent of the non-working people of working age in Tashkent were women; of them, 80 percent had children. A similar situation was also observed in other cities. This is one of the reasons why Uzbekistan, just as other Central Asian republics, considerably lags behind several union republics based on the

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proportion of women in the total number of workers and employees. Thus, whereas for the USSR on the whole and for the Latvian SSR, the Estonian SSR, and the Belorussian SSR this indicator in 1970 was equal to 51-53 percent; for the Uzbek SSR, the Turkmen SSR and the Tajik SSR it ranged from 38 to 41 percent.⁵⁸

The question of drawing women into production is a complicated social problem. It requires the development of scientifically based recommendations for the country's different rayons with a consideration of their specific natures. This problem is especially acute for the Central Asian region where the percent of families with many children is high. This is mainly typical of the indigenous nationalities.

In the Seventies, guided by the decisions of party and soviet organs, the work collectives of individual enterprises began to use new ways and methods to draw women to production. The Kokandskiy Stocking Knitting Combine has experienced a shortage of personnel for a long time. In accordance with a decision of the party and trade union organizations, the shop chiefs and other section and service leaders were sent to the Makhallinskiye committees to attract the housewives to work. Considering that the majority of those not working were mothers with many children, the enterprise made arrangements for their children in pre-school establishments and organized the women's training in work professions. As a result, it turned out that there were rather a lot who desired to work in the combine. Additional city bus routes, especially to remote rayons, were set up with help of the party's gorkom and the gorispolkom, and eating was arranged in the enterprise's dining hall. All this permitted the combine to end the personnel shortage.⁵⁹

When performing the great deal of work to draw women into public production, the Central Committee of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan strengthened control over the performance of political and indoctrinational work among them on the spot. In May 1970, the tasks of Uzbekistan's party organization in further improving the activity of women in the construction of communism were discussed during the 18th Plenum of the Communist Party's Central Committee.⁶⁰ Considering that a significant part of them were not being drawn into public production because of the shortage of pre-school establishments, the Central Committee of the Uzbek Communist Party and the UzSSR Council of Ministers adopted on 2 October 1970 the resolution "On the Condition and Further Development of Public Pre-School Education in the Republic" which planned for the number of places in kindergartens and day nurseries to be brought to 407,800 in 1970 and 735,000 in 1975.⁶¹

The 18th congress and the 6th Plenum of the Central Committee of the republic's Communist Party,^{62,63} the 25th CPSU Congress, and the 19th Congress of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan played an important role in solving the problem.

As a result of the large organizational work, definite positive changes for the better in attracting women to production activity in the various branches of the republic's national economy occurred during the Seventies. Whereas the proportion of women in the total number of workers and employees in Uzbekistan was equal to 40 percent in 1965, it was equal to 43 percent in 1976; when compared to the all-union indicators, the deviation decreased from ten to eight points.

However, this indicator continued to remain relatively low for indigenous nationalities even in branches where female labor is widely used. The providing of industrial enterprises and construction organizations with worker personnel is linked to a definite degree with the drawing of women into the service area. In Uzbekistan the proportion of female workers in such branches of the service area as state trade and public catering was much lower than in the majority of the other republics and the Soviet Union as a whole. In 1970, female workers in the country's trade and public catering system reached 91 percent of the total number employed, but in Uzbekistan -- 57 percent.⁶⁴ This indicator was especially insignificant in such oblasts as Namanganskaya (25.4 percent), Kashkadar'inskaya⁶⁵ (33.4 percent), Andizhanskaya (38.9 percent) and Samarkandskaya (40.9 percent).

It is quite evident that the drawing of women into the trade and public catering organization would permit the freeing of a significant number of men who could fill up the ranks of industrial workers. New tasks in this area have been assigned to the republic by the 26th CPSU Congress and the 20th Congress of the Communist Party of Uzbekistan.

As was pointed out in the report of the CPSU Central Committee to the 26th Congress of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, "a number of measures to improve working conditions for working women, family relaxation and personal and cultural services were adopted in the 10th Five-Year Plan ...; however, ... a noticeable change has still not occurred."⁶⁶ In connection with this, the congress outlined ways to improve this work further during the 11th Five-Year Plan, pointing out the need to consider carefully the distinctive features of the situation in the different republics and rayons.

The decree of the CPSU Central Committee and the USSR Council⁶⁷ of Ministers, "On Measures To Improve State Aid to Families Who Have Children" will play an important role in the further attraction of women to public production.

An analysis of the basic directions of the activity of party Soviet and economic organs in Uzbekistan permits the conclusion to be drawn that definite positive experience in the rational use of labor resources was acquired in the republic during the Sixties and Seventies. Industrial enterprises were established in the thickly populated rayons of the republic and in rural rayons, the prospects for using a pendulum migration to replenish the ranks of industrial workers with rural area inhabitants were outlined, and efforts were made to attract unemployed able-bodied people, especially women, to industry.

All this contributed to intensifying the integration processes, improving the republic's social structure, and increasing the work activity of all classes and social groups.

At the same time, the available experience requires further development and improvement since Uzbekistan, just as the other Central Asian republics and a number of rayons in the Caucasus, is one of the regions where a considerable proportion of the country's labor resources is concentrated at the present time. The drawing of these reserves into public production, including all-union industry, is one of the most important social and economic tasks assigned by the 26th party congress.

FOOTNOTES

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9. ANDIZHANSKAYA PRAVDA, 4 September 1979
10. NAMANGANSKAYA PRAVDA, 1 May 1979
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